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Shock-induced temperatures of CaMgSi₂O₆†

Bob Svendsen and Thomas J. Ahrens

Seismological Laboratory,
California Institute of Technology,
Pasadena, CA, 91125.

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Abstract

Optical radiation from shock-compressed crystal CaMgSi₂O₆ (diopside) constrains crystal CaMgSi₂O₆ Hugoniot temperatures of 3500-4800 K in the 150-170 GPa pressure range, while glass CaMgSi₂O₆, having a density 87% that of crystal CaMgSi₂O₆, achieves Hugoniot temperatures of 3600-3800 K in the 105-107 GPa pressure range. The radiation history of each of these materials implies that the shock-compressed states of each are highly absorptive, with effective absorption coefficients of $\geq 500-1000 \text{ m}^{-1}$. Calculated Hugoniot states for these materials, when compared to the experimental results, imply that crystal CaMgSi₂O₆ Hugoniot states in the 150-170 GPa range represent a high-pressure phase (HPP) solid (or possibly liquid) phase with an STP density of $\approx 4100\pm200$ kg/m³, STP Grüneisen's parameter of ≈1.5±0.5 and STP HPP-LPP specific internal energy difference, $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$, of 0.9 ± 0.5 MJ/kg. These results are consistent with a CaSiO₃-MgSiO₃ perovskite high-pressure phase assemblage. CaMgSi₂O₆, we have the same range of HPP properties, except that $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ is 2.3±0.5 MJ/kg, a strong indication that the glass CaMgSi₂O₆ Hugoniot states occupy the liquid-phase in the system CaMgSi₂O₃. Comparison of the pressuretemperature Hugoniot of crystal CaMgSi₂O₆ with the Hugoniots of its constituent oxides (i.e., SiO2, CaO and MgO) demonstrates the primary influence of the HPP STP density of these materials on the magnitude of the temperature in their shock-compressed states. The crystal CaMgSi₂O₆ pressure-temperature Hugoniot constrained by the experimental results lies at 2500-3000 K between 110 and 135 GPa, within the plausible range of lowermost-mantle temperature profiles.

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Introduction

Mg-Fe oxides and/or silicates are currently believed to dominate the composition of the Earth's mantle. CaMgSi₂O₆, which in mineral form is known as diopside, represents one of several pyroxene compositions relevant to investigations of composition of the Earth's mantle, and is the only natural pyroxene to form large, transparent single crystals suitable for shock-temperature investigation. The possibility that the Earth accreted inhomogeneously (e.g., Turekian and Clark, 1969), or strongly differentiated during core formation (e.g., Stevenson, 1981), implies that certain regions of the mantle, such as D", may be composed of oxides and/or silicates of much more refractory elements, such as Ca and/or Al. A number of previous static and dynamic experimental efforts (e.g., Liu, 1978, 1979a; Svendsen and Ahrens, 1983; Boslough et al., 1984; Boslough et al., 1986) and modeling efforts (e.g., Ruff and Anderson, 1980) have directly or indirectly addressed this issue. In particular, calculations indicate that CaMgSi₂O₆ (Di) could be one of the earliest phases to condense out of the solar nebula (Grossman and Larimer, 1974), and so may be a major participant in inhomogeneous accretion. In this paper, we use the shock-induced radiation from Di to constrain its Hugoniot temperature. Combining these constraints with previous work on the mechanical response of Di to shock compression, we place constraints on the pressure-density-temperature equation-of-state of the highpressure phase(s) (HPP's) of Di. The high-pressure (\gtrsim 50-80 GPa: Svendsen and Ahrens, 1983) shock-compressed states of crystal Di are likely to represent an assemblage of CaSiO₃-MgSiO₃ perovskites (Liu, 1979b).

Experimental

We conducted the experiments on a two-stage, light-gas gun (e.g., Jeanloz and Ahrens, 1980a; Figure 1). In these, a lexan-encased tantalum (Ta) flyer-plate, accelerated to velocities between 4.7 and 6.1 km/sec (Table IV), impacted a 1.5 mm-thick Ta and 6.1 km/sec (Table IV), impacted a 1.5 mm-thick Ta driver-plate in contact with an approximately 2 mm-thick (100)-oriented,

transparent crystal Di samples or 4 mm-thick, transparent glass Di samples (Table IV). We covered the free-surface of an aluminum mask to avoid observing radiation from the target's edge. Radiation from the target reflects from a mirror, propagates though an objective lens, and is directed by a (dichroic) pellicle beam splitter and two half-silvered beam splitters into 4 detectors filtered at nominal wavelengths of 450, 600, 750 and 900 nm. We recorded the signal from each detector with a Tektronix 485 single-sweep oscilloscope and a LeCroy (model 8081) 100-MHz transient recorder.

The densities of crystal Di samples (Table IV) agree well with the ideal value of 3277 kg/m³ (Robie *et al.*, 1978). This is consistent with the microprobe analyses of our sample materials, given in Table I. The glass Di samples are about 13.6% less dense than the crystal samples; this is consistent with the density of glass Di used, for example, in spectroscopic studies (Binsted *et al.*, 1985).

As in previous studies (e.g., Lyzenga, 1980; Boslough et al. 1984), we vapor-deposited 500-1000 nm of silver (Ag) on the sample, and then placed the Ag "film" in contact with the Ta driver plate to minimize radiation from an otherwise rough driver plate-sample interface. We expected this Ag film to absorb any radiation from the Ta-Ag interface, heat up much less than a mechanical Ta-CaMgSi₂O₆ interface (Urtiew and Grover, 1974), and contain no trapped gas that could also contribute to interface radiation (Boslough, 1984).

Data Analysis

Our data set consists of six experiments: four on diopside (CaMgSi₂O₆, Di) single-crystals (140, 141, 169 and 170, Table IV), and two on CaMgSi₂O₆ (Di) glass (196 and 197, Table IV). We record the radiation intensity from the target as a function of time at the wavelengths stated above. In Figures 2 and 3, we display examples of this data at 750 nm. The data shown in Figure 2 from crystal Di (shot 141, Table IV), while that shown in Figure 3 is from glass diopside (shot 197, Table IV). These radiation histories are representative of those at all

other observed wavelengths and in all other experiments. With the known radiation intensity of a standard lamp (Boslough, 1984) at the observed wavelengths, we transform this raw data into experimental spectral radiation intensities (in the form of spectral radiance) as a function of time. The radiance data for all experiments is listed in Table II.

As stated above, the target consists of a Ta driver-plate, Ag film layer and sample layer. Radiation from the target is first observed when the shock wave compresses the Ag film at the Ag-sample interface (to, Figure 2 or 3). As shown most clearly in Figure 3, the radiation intensity in all experiments rises sharply to a peak value, and then as the shock wave propagates into the sample, the intensity decays almost as quickly to a time-independent magnitude reflecting that of the shocked sample. Since the Ag film is almost certainly much hotter than the sample over the time scale of the experiment (Boslough, 1984; Svendsen and Ahrens, 1987), the strong decay of the initial radiation intensity is most likely due to shock-induced opacity of the shocked sample (Boslough, 1985). With the possible exception of Al₂O₃ (Bass et al., 1987), all initially transparent materials studied so far (e.g., LiF: Kormer, 1968; CaAl₂Si₂O₈: Boslough et al., 1986) lose some transparency during shock compression. In the present case, the thermal radiation from Ag at the Ag-sample interface is apparently strongly absorbed by the shocked sample such that observed radiation intensity is quickly dominated by the sample intensity (Boslough, 1985). Hence we observe a fast decay of the initial high intensity and a subsequent time-independent radiation intensity displayed in Figures 2 and 3. To demonstrate these considerations from a model viewpoint, we represent the observed radiation intensity, $I_{\lambda exp}(\lambda,t)$, in terms of a model intensity, $I_{\lambda mod}(\lambda,t)$, as a function of wavelength (λ) , and time after the onset of radiation from the target, t, i.e.,

$$I_{\lambda \text{mod}}(\lambda, t) = \hat{\epsilon}_{\lambda l}(t)I_{\lambda \text{pl}}[\lambda, T_{l}(t)] + \hat{\epsilon}_{\lambda s}(t)I_{\lambda \text{pl}}(\lambda, T_{s})$$
[1]

In [1], T_s is the shock-compressed (Hugoniot) sample (S) temperature assumed homogeneous, uniform and constant, and $T_i(t)$ is the temperature of Ag at the

Ag-sample interface (I), which may be time-dependent (Grover and Urtiew, 1974). Further,

$$\hat{\epsilon}_{\lambda l}(t) \equiv [1 - r_{\lambda FS}] \tau_{\lambda US}(t) [1 - r_{\lambda SF}] \tau_{\lambda S}(t) [1 - r_{\lambda DVT}]$$
 [2]

$$\hat{\epsilon}_{\text{NS}}(t) \equiv [1 - r_{\text{NPS}}] \ \tau_{\text{NUS}}(t) \ [1 - r_{\text{NSP}}] \ [1 + r_{\text{NINT}} \ \tau_{\text{NS}}(t)] \ [1 - \tau_{\text{NS}}(t)]$$
 [3]

are the effective normal spectral emissivities of the Ag at the Ag-sample interface and shocked sample, respectively, while r_{NFS} , r_{NSF} and r_{NINT} are the effective normal spectral reflectivities of the unshocked sample (US) free-surface, shock front and Ag-sample interface, respectively. Also,

$$\tau_{\lambda US}(t) \equiv \exp[-a_{\lambda US}^* (1 - t/t_{exp})]$$
 [4]

and

$$\tau_{xs}(t) \equiv \exp[-a_{xs}^* \ t/t_{exp}]$$
 [5]

are the effective normal spectral transmissivities of unshocked sample and shocked sample layers, respectively. In [4] and [5], $a_{\lambda LS}^*$ and $a_{\lambda S}^*$ are nondimensional forms of the effective normal spectral coefficients of absorption in the unshocked and shocked samples, respectively, given by

$$a_{\lambda s}^* \equiv a_{\lambda s} (U - v_s) t_{exp}$$
 [6]

and

$$a_{\text{NUS}}^* \equiv a_{\text{NUS}} \, \text{Ut}_{\text{exp}}$$
 [7]

Note that $t_{exp} \equiv d/U$ is the experimental time-scale, U is the shock wave velocity in the sample, d is the initial thickness of the sample layer in the target, and v_s is the shock-induced material velocity of the shocked sample. Lastly, we have

$$I_{\lambda pl}(\lambda, T) \equiv \frac{C_1}{\lambda^5 [e^{C_2/\lambda T} - 1]}$$

(with $C_1 \equiv 1.19088 \times 10^{-16} W \cdot m^2$ and $C_2 \equiv 1.4388 \times 10^{-2} m \cdot K$) as the Planck function.

Assuming the shocked sample is strongly absorptive, we have $a_{xs}^* \gtrsim 1$ or $a_{xs} \gtrsim 1/(d-v_s t_{exp})$ from [6], and so $\tau_{xs}(t) \sim 0$ from [5]. In this case, $\hat{\epsilon}_{xi}(t) \sim 0$ from [2], and

$$\hat{\epsilon}_{\lambda S}(t) \rightarrow \hat{\epsilon}_{\lambda S} \equiv (1 - r_{\lambda FS}) (1 - r_{\lambda SF})$$
 [8]

from [3]. Note that $\hat{\epsilon}_{xs}$ is then time-independent. Putting these results into [1], we have

$$I_{\lambda \text{mod}}(\lambda, t) \rightarrow I_{\lambda \text{mod}}(\lambda) \approx (1 - r_{\lambda \text{rs}})(1 - r_{\lambda \text{rs}}) I_{\lambda \text{pl}}(\lambda, T_{\text{s}}) = \hat{\epsilon}_{\lambda \text{s}} I_{\lambda \text{pl}}(\lambda, T_{\text{s}})$$
[9]

which represents a constant radiation intensity at a given wavelength, just we observed in the data (Figures 2 and 3). The minimum values of a_{xs} required by the condition $a_{xs} \gtrsim 1/(d-v_s t_{exp})$ may be calculated from the experimental parameters listed in Table IV. We list the results of this calculation in Table IV, where we see that, for crystal Di, $a_{xs} \gtrsim 700-1100 \text{ m}^{-1}$, while for glass Di, we have $a_{xs} \gtrsim 420 \text{ m}^{-1}$.

As the shock wave reaches the free surface of the unshocked sample (t_s in Figure 2 or 3), the radiation radiation intensity again becomes transient, and the experiment is over. Since we want to infer the shock-compressed temperature of the sample from the shock-induced sample radiation, and since [9] is most likely valid for $t\approx t_{exp}$, we use the magnitude of the radiation intensity at t_{exp} (Table IV, just prior to t_s , Figure 2 or 3) and each wavelength to constrain the temperature of the shocked sample. Assuming the spectral reflectivities r_{xrs} and r_{xsr} are independent of wavelength, [9] is analogous to the greybody relation, *i.e.*,

$$I_{\lambda gb}(\lambda, t_{exp}) \equiv \hat{\epsilon}_{fit}(t_{exp}) I_{\lambda pl}(\lambda, T_{fit})$$
 [10]

Comparing [9] and [10], we see that $\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm fit}(t_{\rm exp})$ should constrain the value of $(1-r_{\rm NFS})(1-r_{\rm NFF})$. The value of $t_{\rm exp}$ reflects the calculated shock-wave transit time through the sample, but is not critically dependent on this choice (Svendsen and Ahrens, 1987) as long as the optical parameters of the unshocked material (e.g., $a_{\rm NUS}$) are not strongly wavelength dependent. At $t_{\rm exp}$, then we measure the spectral radiance at 4 wavelengths (450, 600, 750 and 900 nm), and we may fit

 $I_{\lambda gb}(\lambda, t_{exp})$ to this data via the χ^2 statistic (e.g., Press et al., 1986). In this case, it is given by

$$\chi^{2}(t_{exp}) = \chi^{2}[t_{exp}; \hat{\epsilon}_{fit}, T_{fit}]$$

$$\equiv \sum_{\lambda} \left\{ \frac{1}{[\sigma(\lambda)]^{2}} \left\{ I_{\lambda exp}(\lambda, t_{exp}) - \hat{\epsilon}_{fit}(t_{exp}) I_{\lambda pl}[\lambda, T_{fit}(t_{exp})] \right\}^{2} \right\} . [11]$$

where $\sigma(\lambda)$ are the experimental uncertainties at each wavelength. On this basis, $\hat{\epsilon}_{\exp}(t_{\exp})$ and $T_{\exp}(t_{\exp})$ represent the values of $\hat{\epsilon}_{fit}(t_{\exp})$ and $T_{fit}(t_{\exp})$ that minimize $\chi^2(t_{\exp})$; in light of [8] and [9], this implies that $\hat{\epsilon}_{\exp} = \hat{\epsilon}_{xs}$ and $T_{\exp} = T_{ss}$. Since the fit is an average over λ , the value of $\hat{\epsilon}_{\exp}$ represents a λ -average of $\hat{\epsilon}_{xs}$. Since χ^2 is a nonlinear functional of temperature, we find its minimum numerically using 1) Golden section (GS) search, and 2) the method of Levenberg as formulated by Marquardt (LM). See, for example, Press *et al.* (1986), for details on both of these methods. To obtain starting values of $\hat{\epsilon}_{fit}(t)$ and $T_{fit}(t)$ for the nonlinear fit, we use Wien's approximation to $I_{\chi pl}(\lambda,T)$ in $\chi^2(t_{\exp})$ which follows from $I_{\chi pl}(\lambda,T)$ in the limit $\exp(C_2/\lambda T) >> 1$, *i.e.*,

$$I_{\lambda wgb}(\lambda,t) \equiv \hat{\epsilon}_{fit}(t) I_{\lambda wi}(\lambda,t) = \hat{\epsilon}_{fit}(t) \frac{2C_1}{\lambda^5} e^{-C_2/\lambda T_{fit}(t)} . \qquad [12]$$

We fit Wien's relation to the data via linear least-squares, and solve for $\hat{\epsilon}_{fit}(t_{exp})$ and $T_{fit}(t_{exp})$.

We present the results of the greybody fit for the six experiments in Table II, and we plot these results in Figures 3a-c. We note that, with 3 or 4 data points and 2 parameters in each of these fits, a χ^2 value of \sim 2 is representative of a "good" fit; this value is very sensitive to measurement uncertainties, as can be seen from [10]. In this case, the values of χ^2 in Table II imply that we may have overestimated measurement uncertainties. Also, note that $T_{\rm exp}$ is much less sensitive to uncertainties than $\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm exp}$, given the form of $I_{\rm kgb}$ (Svendsen and Ahrens, 1987). In Table II, the uncertainties quoted with the GS fits represent measurement uncertainties mapped into uncertainties for $\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm exp}(t_{\rm exp})$ and $T_{\rm exp}(t_{\rm exp})$ (Boslough et al., 1986). However, the uncertainty quoted with each LM fit is the

standard deviation of that fit. Note that the GS and LM fits for shot 196, and the Wien, GS and LM fits for shot 197, give $\hat{\epsilon}_{exp}$ well above unity, which is an unphysical result. As noted by Boslough et al. (1986), however, $\hat{\epsilon}_{fit}$ is much more sensitive to data scatter, whether due to uncorrected λ -dependences in the data, or experimental measurement errors. As can be seen from the corresponding GS fits where $\hat{\epsilon}_{fit}$ is set equal to one, the variable $\hat{\epsilon}_{fit}$ fits for shots 196 and 197 may then underestimate the value of T_{exp} by ~ 200 K. Also note that the value of $\hat{\epsilon}_{exp}$ for all experiments and all fits is ≥ 0.1 , which implies that we are observing relatively homogeneous radiation from the sample, as opposed to localized, "shear-band" radiation seen in many shock-compressed oxides and silicates at lower (≤ 70 GPa) pressure (e.g., Kondo and Ahrens, 1983; Schmitt et al., 1986). Although the constraint is very poor, we note that, from the identification (1- r_{xps}) $\approx \hat{\epsilon}_{exp}$, as discussed above, $r_{xps} \sim 0.1$ with $r_{xps} \sim 0.1$, for shots 140 and 141, at least.

Hugoniot Calculations and Comparison with Data

We calculate the density, $\rho_{\rm H}$, and pressure, $P_{\rm H}$ of the shock-compressed Di states, from an impedance match (Rice et al., 1958) between the target components assuming a linear shock velocity, U, material velocity, v, relation, i.e., $U = a_i + b_i v$. For Ta, we use $\rho_i^{\alpha} = 16675 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $a_i = 3290 \text{ m/s}$ and $b_i = 1.31$ (Mitchell and Nellis, 1984), while for Ag, we use $\rho_i^{\alpha} = 10501 \text{kg/m}^3$, $a_i = 3270 \text{ m/s}$ and $b_i = 1.55$ (Marsh, 1980). We assume the U-v relation for crystal Di, which is experimentally-constrained to 100 GPa (Svendsen and Ahrens, 1983) is valid to 170 GPa (Table III). Since there are no U-v data for glass Di, we must estimate the U-v coefficients for glass Di, a_{ig} and b_{ig} , from those of the corresponding crystal material, a_{ic} and b_{ic} . With a_{ig} and b_{ig} , we may calculate the impedance match for glass Di targets, and so estimate the experimental glass Di Hugoniot states. Since the U-v relation represents a Taylor's series expansion of U(v) about the initial state v=0, a_i and b_i are defined by

$$a_i \equiv \lim_{v \to 0} \left\{ U^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \tag{13}$$

$$b_{i} \equiv \lim_{v \to 0} \left\{ \frac{dU}{dv} \right\}$$
 [14]

Now, we may connect U and v to P_H via the relations

$$U^2 = \frac{1}{\rho_i^{\alpha} \eta_H} [P_H - P_i]$$
 [15]

and

$$v^2 = \frac{\eta_H}{\rho_i^{\alpha}} [P_H - P_i]$$
 [16]

Using [13] and [14] in [15] and [16], and noting that the limit $\rho_H \rightarrow \rho_i^{\alpha}$ is equivalent to $v \rightarrow 0$, we obtain

$$\mathbf{a}_{i} = \left\{ \lim_{\rho_{H} \to \rho_{i}^{\alpha}} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}P_{H}}{\mathrm{d}\rho_{H}} \right) \right\}^{1/2}$$
 [17]

and

$$b_{i} = \frac{1}{4} \left\{ 1 + \lim_{\rho_{H} \to \rho_{I}^{\alpha}} \left\{ \frac{\mathrm{dln}B_{H}}{\mathrm{dln}\rho_{H}} \right\} \right\}$$
 [18]

with

$$B_{H} \equiv \rho_{H} \left\{ \frac{dP_{H}}{d\rho_{H}} \right\}$$
 [19]

We relate glass and crystal Di Hugoniot states at the same density, occupying the same phase, via the relation (Svendsen, 1987)

$$P_{\text{gH}}(\rho_{\text{H}}) = \frac{(1-\phi)[1-(1+\frac{1}{2}\gamma_{\text{H}})\eta_{\text{cH}}]}{[1-(1+\frac{1}{2}\gamma_{\text{H}})\eta_{\text{cH}}]}P_{\text{cH}} + \gamma_{\text{H}} \frac{\frac{1}{2}\phi P_{\text{i}} + \rho_{\text{ig}}^{\alpha} \Delta e_{\text{i}}^{c-g}}{[1-(1+\frac{1}{2}\gamma_{\text{H}})\eta_{\text{cH}}]}$$
[20]

Relation [20] depends on the assumption that γ , the equilibrium thermodynamic Grüneisen's parameter, is a function of density alone. In [20], we have $\gamma_{\rm H} \equiv \gamma(\rho_{\rm H}), \quad \eta_{\rm gH} \equiv 1 - \rho_{\rm ig}^{\,\alpha}/\rho_{\rm H}$ is the relative compression of the glass, $\eta_{\rm cH} \equiv 1 - \rho_{\rm ic}^{\,\alpha}/\rho_{\rm H}$ is the relative compression of the crystal, $\phi \equiv 1 - \rho_{\rm ig}^{\,\alpha}/\rho_{\rm ic}^{\,\alpha}$ is the

"porosity," and $\Delta e_i^{c-g} \equiv e(\rho_{ic}^{\alpha}, s_{ic}^{\alpha}) - e(\rho_{ig}^{\alpha}, s_{ig}^{\alpha})$ is the difference in specific internal energy between the glass and crystal in the low pressure phase at T_i and P_i . Further, P_{gH} is the pressure of the glass Hugoniot state, P_{cH} is the pressure of the crystal Hugoniot state, ρ_{ig}^{α} and s_{ig}^{α} are the initial glass density and specific entropy, and ρ_{ic}^{α} and s_{ic}^{α} are the initial crystal density and specific entropy. Since relations [13]-[19] are valid for any "hydrodynamic" starting material, we have

$$\mathbf{a}_{ig} = \lim_{\rho_{\mathbf{H}} \to \rho_{ig}^{\alpha}} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{P}_{gH}}{\mathrm{d}\rho_{H}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
 [21]

$$b_{ig} = \frac{1}{4} \left\{ 1 + \lim_{\rho_{H} \to \rho_{ig}^{\alpha}} \left\{ \left(\frac{\mathrm{dln}B_{gH}}{\mathrm{dln}\rho_{H}} \right) \right\} \right\}$$
 [22]

for glass Di, with P_{gH} given by [20]. Note that [19] relates the density derivatives of P_{gH} to those of P_{gH} which we obtain from (McQueen *et al.*, 1967)

$$P_{eH} = P_{i} + \frac{\rho_{ic}^{\alpha} a_{ic}^{2} \eta_{eH}}{(1 - b_{ic} \eta_{eH})^{2}}$$
 [23]

the so-called shock wave equation-of-state. So, via [20]-[23], we may calculate a_{ig} and b_{ig} as functions of ρ_{ig}^{α} , ρ_{ic}^{α} , a_{ic} and b_{ic} . These then allow us to calculate an impedance match for targets containing glass Di as the sample material, and obtain an estimate of the glass Di P_{H} , ρ_{H} state. We also use [20] to estimate the $\rho_{H}(P_{gH})$ and so $T_{H}(P_{gH})$ via [24] below.

The temperature of a singly shock-compressed material, T_H , may be estimated from an equilibrium thermodynamic energy balance (e.g., McQueen et al., 1967; Ahrens et al., 1969; Jeanloz and Ahrens, 1980b; see Svendsen, 1987, for details) in which we assume the material compresses adiabatically, and as an elastic fluid. On this basis, if we compress a material from an initial state (P_i, T_i) to a shock-compressed state (P_H, T_H) , assuming the material undergoes a phase transition from a low pressure phase, α , to a high pressure phase, β , the Hugoniot temperature of the β -phase, T_H , may be written

$$T_{H} = T_{s_{l}} + \frac{1}{c_{v}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{1}{\rho_{i}^{\alpha}} - \frac{1}{\rho_{H}} \right\} P_{H} - \left[\Delta e_{s_{l}} + \Delta e_{i}^{\alpha - \beta} \right] \right\}$$
 [24]

with $\eta_{\rm H} \equiv 1 - \rho_{\rm i}^{\alpha}/\rho_{\rm H}$ being the relative compression. To write [24], we assume that $c_{\rm v}$, the specific heat at constant volume of the shock-compressed state, is independent of temperature, which is justified a posteriori by our results below. The subscripts "i", "H", "S" and "V" designate initial, shock-compressed, constant entropy and constant volume states of the material, respectively. Note that all quantities in [24], and the expressions to follow, apply to the high-pressure phase, β , unless otherwise designated. In [24], $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ is the difference in specific internal energy between the two phases at T_i and P_i , Δe_{s_i} is the change in specific internal of β compressed isentropically (at specific entropy s_i) from its density at STP, ρ_i , to a density $\rho_{\rm H}$ (that of the shock-compressed state), while T_s is the temperature of the material along the isentrope referenced to s_i and ρ_i . Also, $P_{\rm H}$ is the pressure of the shock-compressed state.

The temperature, T_{s_l} , along the compression isentrope may be estimated from γ via the relation

$$T_{s_i} = T(s_i, \rho_H) \equiv T_i \exp \left\{ \gamma(\rho_i) \left(1 - \frac{\rho_i}{\rho_H} \right) \right\}.$$
 [25]

since we assume $\gamma\rho$ is constant in all model calculations. Lastly, we estimate Δe_{s_l} from the same energy balance used to obtain [24], the expression for T_H (Svendsen, 1987).

Since we usually have values for ρ_{ig}^{α} , ρ_{ic}^{α} , a_{ic} and b_{ic} a priori, and we can estimate a_{ig} and b_{ig} as discussed above, we use these to calculate impedance matches for targets containing crystal and glass Di. The impedance match gives us $\rho_{cr}P_{cr}$ and $\rho_{gr}P_{gr}$. With these, we have $T_{cr}(P_{cr})$ and $T_{gr}(P_{gr})$ from [24], given estimates of ri, γ and c_v for β , as well as $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ ($\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta} + \Delta e_i^{c-g}$ for the glass). Requiring $P_{gr} \rightarrow P_i$ as $\rho_{rr} \rightarrow \rho_{ig}^{\alpha}$, we have Δe_i^{c-g} from [20], i.e.,

$$\Delta e_{i}^{\,c-g} = \frac{1}{\rho_{ig}^{\,\alpha}\gamma_{ig}} \bigg\{ (1 - \frac{1}{2}\gamma_{ig}\phi)P_{i} - (1-\phi)[1-(1+\frac{1}{2}\gamma_{ig})\eta_{cg}]P_{cH}(\rho_{ig}^{\,\alpha}) \bigg\}$$

with $\eta_{\rm cg} \equiv 1 - \rho_{\rm ic}^{\alpha}/\rho_{\rm ig}^{\alpha}$ and $\gamma_{\rm ig} \equiv \gamma(\rho_{\rm ig}^{\alpha})$. In this case, $T_{\rm H}$ for glass and crystal Di starting materials depends on the basic unknowns $\rho_{\rm i}$, γ and $c_{\rm v}$ for the high-

pressure phase, β , as well as $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$. From [24], we see that the slope of $T_H(P_H)$ is controlled by the magnitude of c_V , while the initial value of T_H is governed by $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$. Further, from [24] and [25], we see that γ influences T_H via the isentropic properties T_{s_i} and Δe_{s_i} . In addition, γ influences the Hugoniot temperature of glass Di through [20]. The density of β at T_i and P_i , ρ_i , influences T_H indirectly, but significantly, through [24], [25], and $\gamma(\rho)$.

In Figures 4a-c, we display calculated Hugoniots for crystal and glass Di that "fit" the shock temperatures constrained by the data discussed above. We give a range of these Hugoniots based on a range of values for ρ_i (3900-4300 kg/m³, Figure 4a), $\gamma_i = \gamma(\rho_i)$ (1-2, Figure 4b), and $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ (0.4-1.4 MJ/kg for crystal Di, and 1.8-2.8 MJ/kg for glass Di, Figure 4c) to demonstrate the sensitivity of T_H to these unknowns. In all these calculations, we assume that c_v is given by its classic lattice value, $3\nu R/M$ (Table III). The experimental results for the slope of T_u(P_u) for the crystal and glass Di Hugoniots suggest this is not an unreasonable assumption, although there are not enough data to rule out a pressuretemperature dependent c_v (e.g., Lyzenga et al., 1983; Boslough et al., 1986). From previous work on the pressure-density Hugoniot of Di (Ahrens et al., 1966; Svendsen and Ahrens, 1983), the range of possible ρ_i values shown in Figure 4a for HPP Di are based on mixed-oxide and perovskite models for HPP Di. Comparing the results in these figures, we see that T_H for crystal Di is most sensitive to ρ_i , followed by $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ and then γ_i . For glass Di, T_H may be slightly more sensitive to γ_i than $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$, but not really knowing a plausible range of values for these parameters, it is hard to say.

From the curves in Figures 4a and 4c, we note that the glass data would also be satisfied by the combination of a lower initial density (3900 kg/m³) and lower value of $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ (1.8 MJ/kg); this is also consistent with the glass Di states representing liquid. Even if $\rho_i \approx 4100 \text{Mk/kg}$ for glass Di, melting is favored, considering the magnitude of $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ (2.3 MJ/kg) needed to "fit" this data. The magnitude of $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ for the "best-fit" crystal Di Hugoniot (0.8 MJ/kg, Table III)

is of the same order as those estimated for some silicate and oxide dynamic solid-solid phase transformations (e.g., 0.82 MJ/kg, α -SiO₂ \rightarrow stishovite, Lyzenga et al., 1983). If the glass data represent a solid-solid plus melting transition, this implies a value for $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ of \approx 1.5 MJ/kg for melting of HPP Di. This compares, for example, with 1.6 MJ/kg estimated by Lyzenga et al. (1983) for the stishovite—liquid SiO₂ transition. This line of thought also leads us to believe that the glass Di data represent liquid Di, while the crystal Di data represent a mixture of high-pressure oxide (B2-CaO, MgO plus stishovite) and/or perovskite (CaSiO₃ plus MgSiO₃, or CaSiO₃ - MgSiO₃ solid solution) phases.

Discussion

In Table IV, we list the greybody fit and uncertainties, along with the calculated shock-wave velocities, shock-transit times, pressure and temperature, for each experiment. The values of $\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm exp}(t_{\rm exp})$ and $T_{\rm exp}(t_{\rm exp})$ in Table IV for shots 140, 141, 169 and 170 are those for the GS fit with $\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm fit}$ and $T_{\rm fit}$ variable, which we choose as representative of the other estimates, within experimental uncertainties. As discussed above, since $\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm exp}(t_{\rm exp})$ for shots 196 and 197 are significantly greater than unity, we choose the GS fit with $\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm fit}$ set to one as the "experimental results" for these shots as listed in Table IV.

We display the "best fit" Hugoniot to the present experimental results (continuous curve) in Figure 5 along with other experimental results inferred from radiation data for SiO₂ (Lyzenga et al., 1983), CaO (Boslough et al., 1986), and MgO (Svendsen & Ahrens, 1987). Also shown are the mantle temperature profiles of Brown & Shankland (1980) and Stacey (1977). These two models represent the range of models currently considered plausible. The HPP Di results fall between the CaO and MgO results, and well-below those for stishovite and liquid-SiO₂. To first order, this is due to the differences in the STP densities of the HPP's of each material. MgO, which apparently does not undergo any phase transformation below 200 GPa (Vassiliou and Ahrens, 1981; Svendsen and Ahrens, 1987) has an STP density of 3583 kg/m³, B2-CaO has an initial density of $\approx 3800\text{-}4000 \text{ kg/m}^3$ (Jeanloz and Ahrens, 1980a; Boslough et al., 1984), HPP solid Di is likely to have a slightly larger ρ_i (\approx 4100 kg/m³, Table III) than B2-CaO, as discussed above, and stishovite has an STP density of $\approx 4300 \text{ kg/m}^3$. This is also true because the values of $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ for each material are approximately the same. Since B2-CaO and HPP Di apparently have very similar ρ_i , other factors, such as compressibility (B2-CaO has a lower bulk modulus than HPP Di: Jeanloz and Ahrens, 1980a; Boslough et al., 1983; Svendsen and Ahrens, 1983), become important. B2-CaO is more compressible than HPP Di, and so its Hugoniot temperature rises more quickly than HPP Di.

Low pressure static studies of Di (e.g., Liu, 1979b) imply that $CaMgSi_2O_6$ may disproportionate into $CaSiO_3$ perovskite and $MgSiO_3$ perovskite above ≈ 20 GPa and 1000 C. Our results are not inconsistent with this, and yet we really cannot distinguish between perovskite and mixed-oxide (or some combination) assemblage. The model we favor (Table III) is more likely representative of the perovskite mixture for $CaMgSi_2O_6$ (Svendsen and Ahrens, 1983).

In comparison with the mantle temperature profiles displayed in Figure 5, we note that both B2-CaO and HPP Di Hugoniot may be at about the same temperature at the pressures of the lowermost mantle. We note that some of the compositional models for the lowermost mantle (e.g., Ruff and Anderson, 1980), known as the D" region, contain significant amounts of more refractory oxides and/or silicates (i.e., CaO, Al₂O₃, CaSiO₃, etc..).

Summary

Observed radiation from shock-compressed crystal CaMgSi₂O₆ (Di) constrains Hugoniot temperatures of 3500-4800 K for this material in the 150-170 GPa pressure range, while glass CaMgSi₂O₆, with a starting density 87% that of crystal Di, achieves Hugoniot temperatures of 3600-3800 K in the 105-107 GPa pressure range. The shock-induced radiation history for these materials implies that both shock-compressed crystal and glass Di are strong absorbers ($a_{ss} \gtrsim 500-1000 \text{ m}^{-1}$). Calculated Hugoniot states for these materials, in comparison with the experimental results, suggest that crystal Di Hugoniot states in the 150-170 GPa range represent a HPP solid (or possibly liquid) phase with an STP density of 4100±200 kg/m³, STP Grüneisen's parameter of 1.5±0.5 and STP HPP-LPP specific internal energy difference of 0.9±0.5 MJ/kg. These parameters are consistent with either a Ca-Mg mixed-oxide or pervoskite assemblage. For glass Di, we have the same range of HPP properties, except that $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ is 2.3±0.5 MJ/kg, a strong indication that the glass Di Hugoniot states occupy the liquid-phase of CaMgSi₂O₆, and that $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta} \approx 1.5 \text{Mg/kg}$ for HPP-Di

melting. This value for $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ is similar to the shock temperature results for SiO_2 (Lyzenga et al., 1983). Comparison of the experimentally-constrained pressure-temperature Hugoniot of crystal Di with the experimentally-constrained Hugoniots of its constituent oxides (i.e., SiO_2 , CaO and MgO) demonstrates the strong influence of the HPP, STP density of these materials on the magnitude of the temperature in their shock-compressed states. The experimentally-constrained crystal Di Hugoniot falls within the plausible range (2500-3000 K) of mantle temperature profiles in the range of pressures (110-135 GPa) corresponding to the lowermost mantle.

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Table I. Microprobe Analyses of Starting Materials.

Shot	140,141†	169,170‡	196,197§		
NI. O	0.00*	0.40	0.00		
Na ₂ O	0.38*	0.48	0.39		
MgO	17.40	17.63	17.59		
$\mathrm{Al_2O_3}$	0.36	0.22	0.36		
${ m SiO_2}$	55.74	55.32	56.08		
CaO	25.15	24.78	25.30		
${ m TiO_2}$	0.02	0.11	0.02		
Cr_2O_3	0.07	0.48	0.02		
MnO	0.08	0.04	0.06		
FeO	0.82	0.96	0.81		
Total	99.97	99.68	100.63		
En	48.4	49.0	48.4		
Wo	50.3	49.5	50.3		
Fs	1.4	1.5	1.4		

[†] Diopside from DeKalb, NY, supplied by S. Huebner, USGS, Reston, VA.

[‡] Russian diopside, supplied by Gem Obsessions, San Diego, CA.

[§] Diopside glass, supplied by G. Miller, Caltech, and G. Fine, Corning Glass Co.

^{*} wght. %

Table II. Radiation data and fits.

		Spectral	Radiar		Fits					
	h		n ² ·sr·nm							
Shot	450	600	750	900	Parameter(t _r)	Wien	GS†	LMt	GS ($\hat{\epsilon}_{fit}=1$)	
	(nm)	(nm)	(nm)	(nm)				•	(nt -)	
140		3.15	3.09	2.87	$\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm exp}(140~{ m ns})$	0.65	0.59	0.56		
		(0.59)	(0.45)	(0.81)		(0.37)	(0.37)	(0.23)	!	
					$T_{exp}(140 \text{ ns})$	4152	4215	4270	3803	
					,	(351)	(364)	(356)	(293)	
					χ^2	0.14	0.06	0.06	0.05	
141	6.14	5.38	6.06	5.71	$\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm exp}(145 \text{ ns})$	0.71	0.65	0.75		
	(1.21)	(1.00)	(0.77)	(0.93)	cap()	(0.34)	(0.34)	(0.11)		
	, ,	,	` ,	. ,	$T_{exp}(145 \text{ ns})$	4737	4782	4643	4372	
					,	(346)	(356)	(153)	(297)	
					χ^2	3.44	3.13	3.05	3.55	
169	5.11	6.58	6.53	5.49	$\hat{\epsilon}_{\exp}(198 \text{ ns})$	0.91	0.86	0.86		
	(0.18)	(0.31)	(0.33)	(0.31)	exp(/	(0.27)	(0.27)	(0.18)		
	,	(-/	()	()	T _{exp} (198 ns)	4522	4552	4555	4428	
					, ,	(263)	(268)	(178)	(251)	
					χ^2	0.30	0.21	0.21	0.48	
170	0.82	1.56	2.34	2.29	$\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm exp}(170 \text{ ns})$	1.01	1.04	1.06		
	(0.13)	(0.17)	(0.26)	(0.26)	exp()	(0.25)	(0.25)	(0.17)		
	` ,	,	,	, ,	$T_{exp}(170 \text{ ns})$	3539 [°]	3508	3498	3539	
					,	(143)	(141)	(90)	(143)	
					χ^2	1.61	1.43	1.42	1.52	
196	1.35	2.14	2.96	3.24	$\hat{\epsilon}_{\exp}(485 \text{ ns})$	1.09	1.23	1.63		
-	(0.48)	(0.33)	(0.42)	(0.51)	,	(0.44)	(0.44)	(0.26)		
	• ,	` ,		` ,	$T_{exp}(485 \text{ ns})$	3695	3585	3422	3711	
					·	(243)	(231)	(100)	(247)	
					χ^2	1.99	1.20	1.03	1.72	
197	1.37	3.18	3.46	3.74	$\hat{\epsilon}_{\rm exp}(475 \text{ ns})$	1.51	1.51	1.38		
	(0.41)	(0.39)	(0.50)	(0.56)	,	(0.39)	(0.39)	(0.22)		
		. ,	, ,	, ,	$T_{\rm exp}(475 \text{ ns})$	3610	3610	3663	3866	
						(208)	(208)	(96)	(239)	
<u> </u>					χ^2	0.50	0.50	0.46	1.23	

^{† -} Golden section search fit. Uncertainties represent experimentally-based uncertainties, and this fit is unweighted.

^{‡ -} Levenberg-Marquardt fit. Uncertainties represent standard deviations of corresponding fit, and this is a weighted fit.

Table III. CaMgSi₂O₆ STP parameters.

Property	Symbol	crystal	glass	Units	
		U-v r			
Density	ρ	3277ª	2828 ^b	kg/m^3	
Intercept	a	5620 ^c 4775 ^d		m/s	
Slope	Ъ	1.27°	1.28^d		
		High-pressure phase			
Density	ρ	4100°	4100°	${ m kg/m^3}$	
Intercept	a	7826°	7826°	m/s	
Slope	b	1.22°	1.22°		
Bulk modulus	K_s	251^f	251^f	GPa	
$(\partial K_s/\partial P)_s$	$\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{s}}^{'}$	3.90 ^g	3.90 ^g		
Grüneisen's parameter‡	γ	1.5 ^h	1.5 ^h		
Specific heat§	c_v	1151.8	1151.8	J/kg·K	
HPP-LPP energy difference	$\Delta e_{i}^{\alpha-eta}$	0.9 ^h	2.3 ^h	MJ/kg	

[†]i.e., U=a+bv. These relations are valid for v>2000 m/s.

 $[\]dagger \rho \gamma$ =constant assumed in all calculations.

 $[\]S$ Dulong-Petit value, used for c_v in all calculations.

^{*}Robie et al. (1978).
*U-v relation referenced to STP density of HPP (Svendsen, 1987).

^b Table IV. ^f calculated assuming $K_s = \rho a^2$.

 $^{^{\}rm c}$ Svendsen & Ahrens (1983). $^{\rm g}$ calculated with $(\partial K_{\rm S}/\partial P)_{\rm S}=4b-1$ (Ruoff, 1967).

⁴ from method discussed in text. ^k from model calculations discussed in text.

Table IV. Experimental results and model estimates.

	Experimental Results						Calculated Results					
Shot	ρ	d	\mathbf{v}_{im}	$\hat{\epsilon}_{ ext{exp}}$	$\mathrm{T_{exp}}$	U	v	a	$\mathbf{t_{st}}$	$P_{\mathtt{H}}$	T_{H}	
	(kg/m^3)	(mm)			(K)	(m/s)	(m/s)	(m^{-1})	(ns)	(GPa)	(K)	
140	3282	1.868	5983	0.57	4215	11210	4403	880	167	162	4190	
	(6)†	(0.010)	(60)	(0.23)	(364)							
	0000	1 500	07.40	0.00	4500	11000	4530	1001		100	4504	
141	3283	1.566	6143	0.90	4782	11360	4518	1061	140	169	4524	
ŀ	(6)	(0.010)	(50)	(0.20)	(356)							
169	3290	2.424	6048	0.97	4555	11300	1118	681	192	165	4313	
109	(5)	(0.004)		_	(268)	11300	1110	001	192	100	4010	
	(0)	(0.004)	(40)	(0.24)	(200)							
170	3289	1.970	5593	0.85	3508	10850	4121	818	182	147	3590	
	(7)	(0.010)		(0.14)				010	10.		0000	
	()	,	` '	(/	()						:	
196	2829	4.008	4673	1.00	3711	9678	3884	417	414	105	3660	
	(1)	(0.004)	(30)	(0.44)	(231)							
197	2827	3.966	4729	1.00	3866	9733	3885	420	408	107	3795	
	(1)	(0.001)	(30)	(0.39)	(208)						1	
	·											

^{† -} measurement uncertainty.

 $[\]rho$ - STP bulk density.

d - Sample thickness.

V_{im} - Impact velocity.

 $[\]hat{\epsilon}_{\text{exp}}$ - Experimentally-constrained greybody effective emissivity.

 $T_{\rm exp}$ - Experimentally-constrained greybody absolute temperature.

 t_r - Time during radiation history when I_{exp} used to constrain T_{exp} and $\hat{\epsilon}_{exp}$ was read.

U - Calculated shock wave velocity through sample.

v - Calculated material velocity of shocked sample sample.

a_{lss} - lower bound to absorption coefficient of shocked sample.

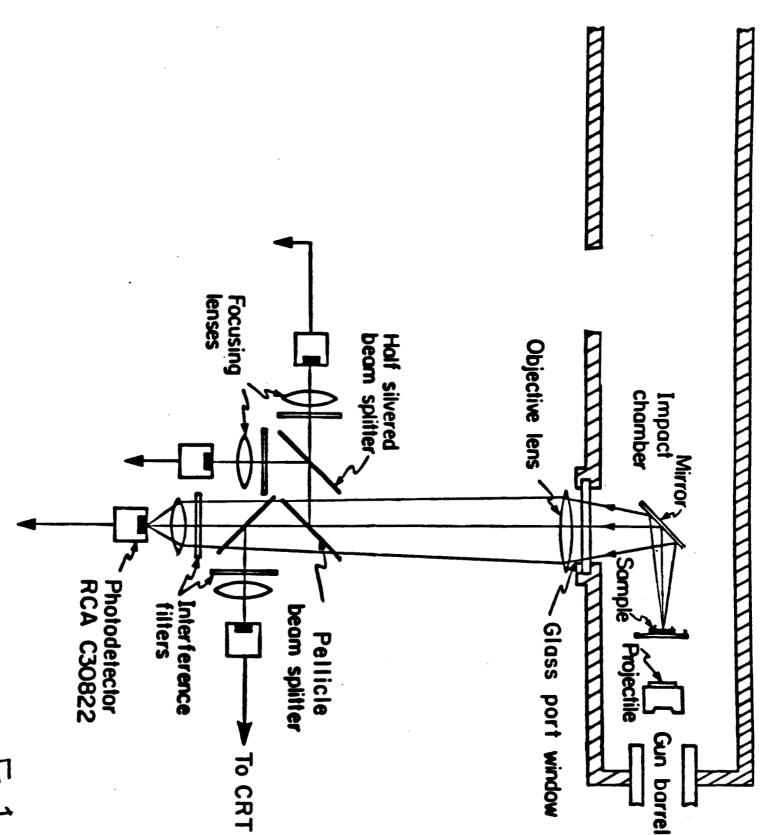
 $[\]mathbf{t}_{st}$ - Calculated shock wave transit time through sample.

 $P_{\rm H}$ - Calculated shock-compressed pressure of sample.

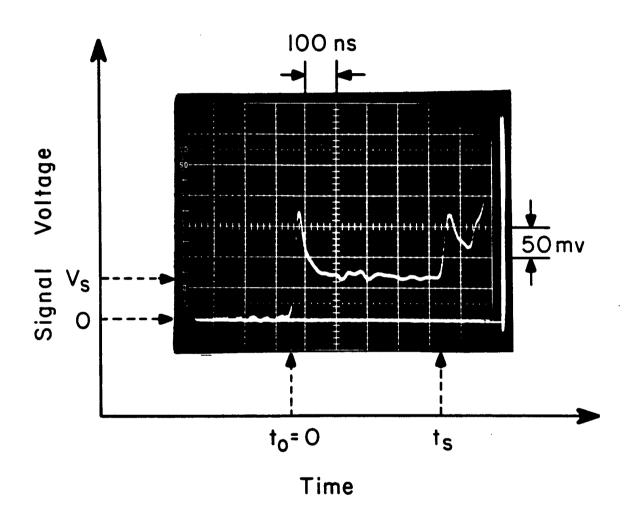
 $[\]boldsymbol{T}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle H}$ - Calculated shock-compressed temperature of sample.

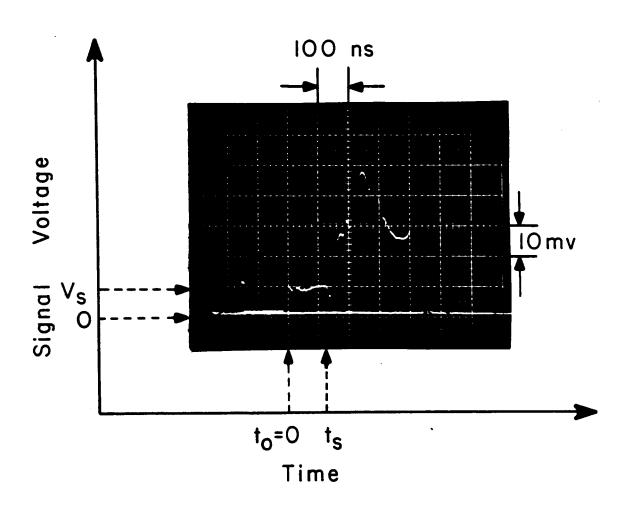
Figure captions

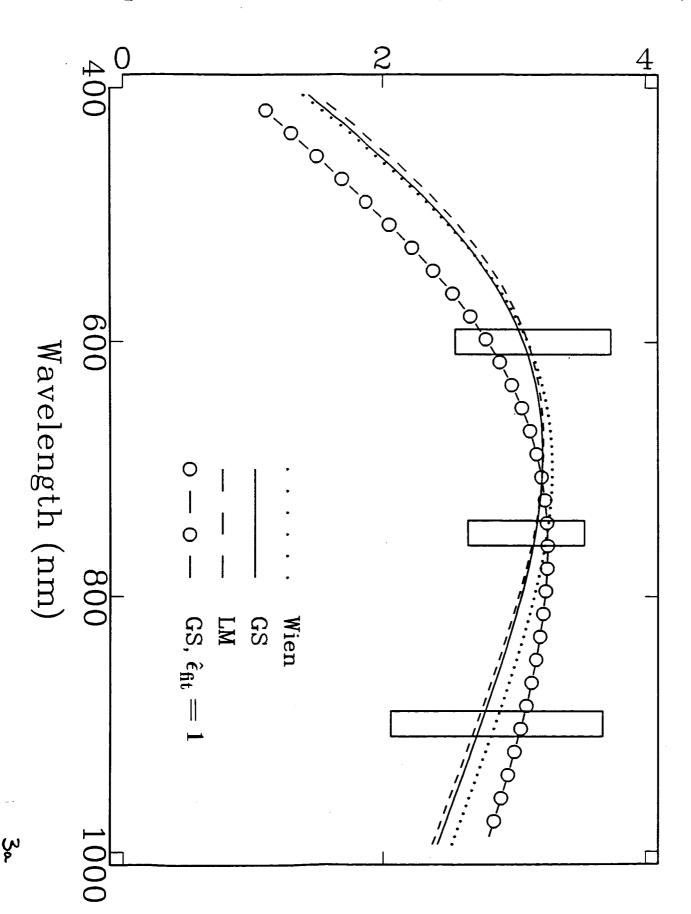
- Figure 1. Geometry of the light-gas gun radiation experiment after Boslough (1984). The projectile, shot through the barrel, impacts the sample at velocities between 4.6 and 6.1 km/sec. Radiation from the sample is turned 90° by the mirror, travels through the objective lens, and is divided up by the three beam-splitter arrangement among the 4 channels of the pyrometer. The resulting signals from the photodiode in each channel are monitored by oscilloscopes and LeCroy transient digital recorders.
- Figure 2. Radiation intensity versus time record for shot 197 (a) on diopside glass, and for shot 141 (b) on diopside single-crystal, both at 750 nm. Duration of the sample radiation intensity is much shorter than that of the glass experiment shown in (a) because sample is thinner.
- Figure 3. Spectral radiance data versus wavelength and greybody fits for $\hat{\epsilon}_{\text{exp}}(t_{\text{exp}})$ and $T_{\text{exp}}(t_{\text{exp}})$. The size of the data rectangles represent experimental uncertainty. Parts (a), (b) and (c) represent shot 140, 169 and 197 data, respectively.
- Figure 4. Experimental results for crystal and glass Di, and model Hugoniots calculated with a range of values for the STP density of the HPP, ρ_i (a), the equilibrium thermodynamic Grüneisen parameter, γ_i (b), and the difference in specific internal energy between phases at STP, $\Delta e_i^{\alpha-\beta}$ (c).
- Figure 5. Experimental and model pressure-temperature shock-compression results for HPP Di, along with experimentally constrained model results for B2-CaO (Boslough et al., 1984), MgO (Svendsen and Ahrens, 1987), and SiO₂ stishovite and liquid (Lyzenga et al., 1983). Also shown are the mantle temperature profiles of Stacey (1977) and Brown and Shankland (1980). The vertical line marks the pressure of the mantle-core boundary (135.7 GPa).

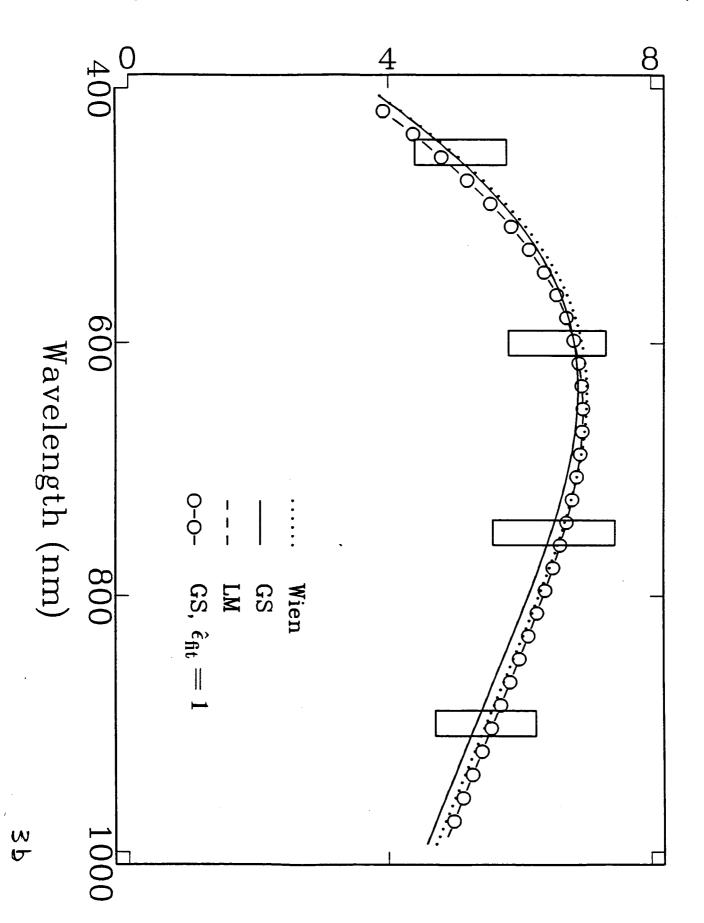


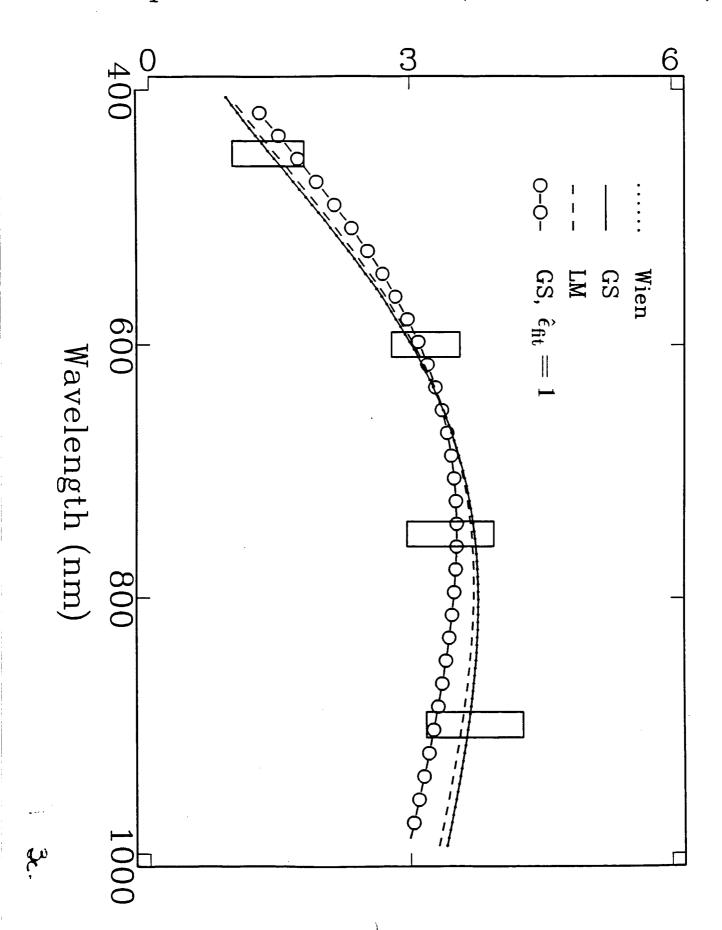
Ta. 1



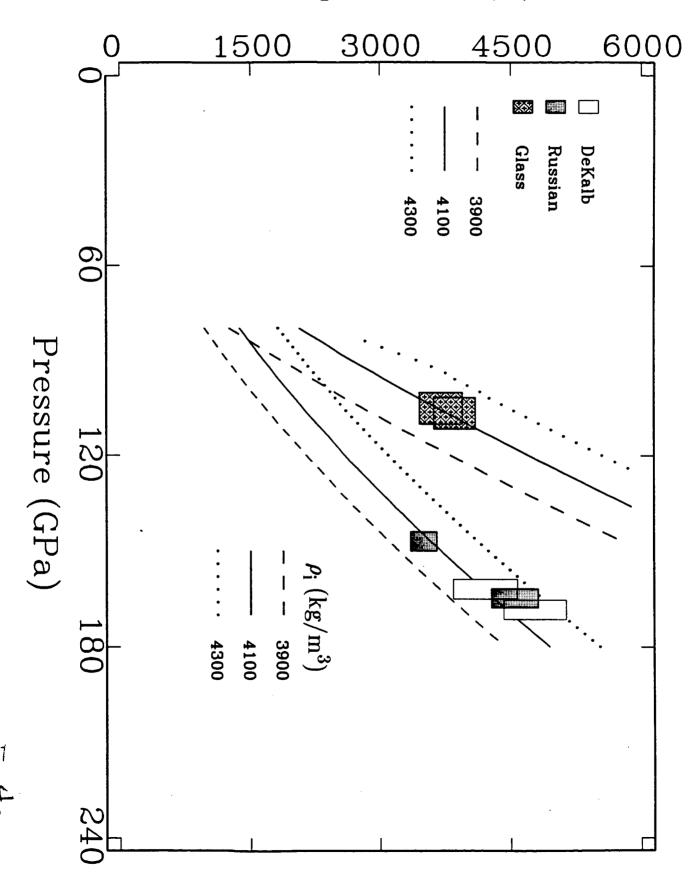




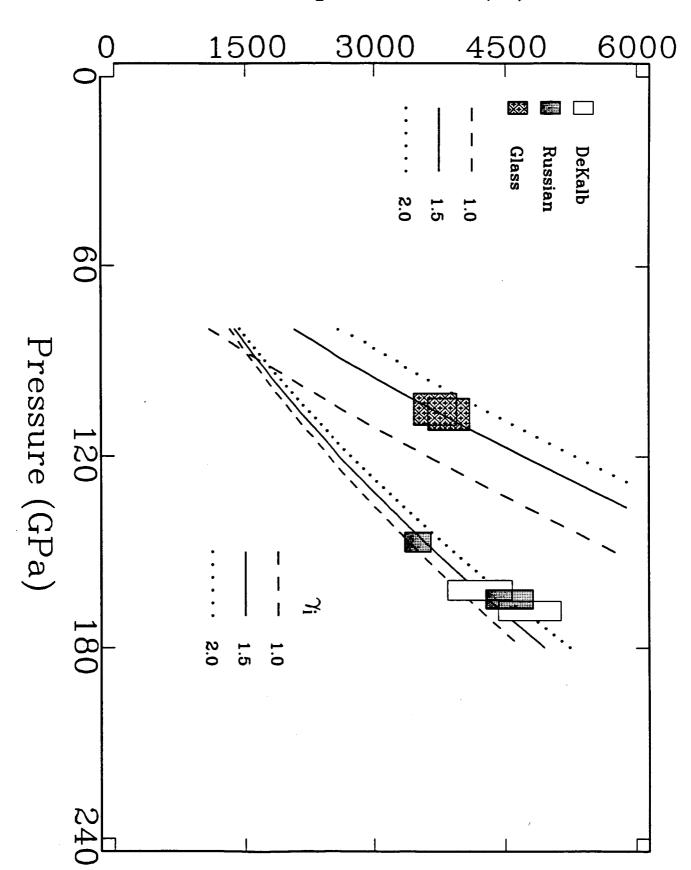




Temperature (K)

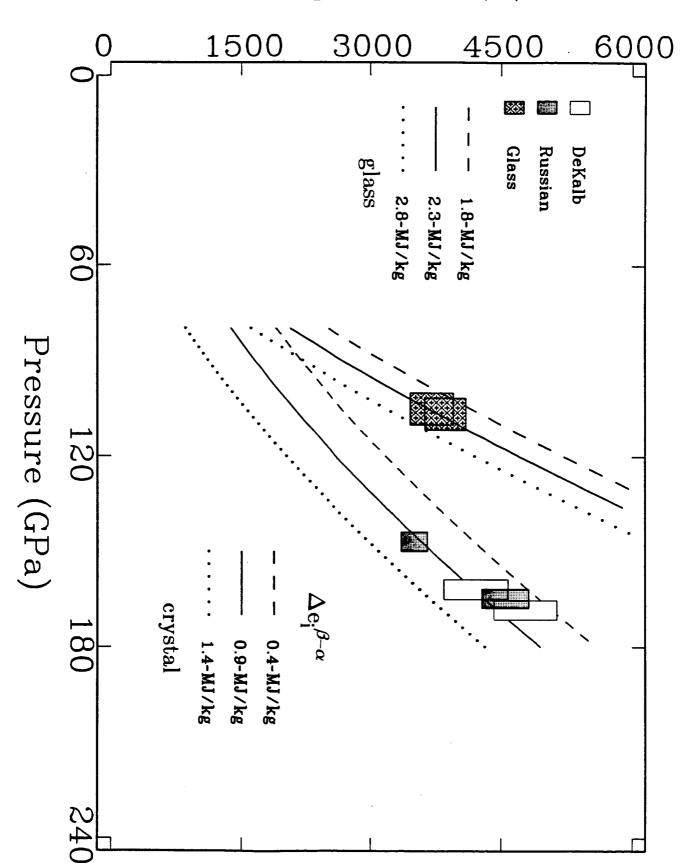


Temperature (K)



4

Temperature (K)



Ctc

Temperature (K)

